



# Sulfur poisoning and regeneration of the Ag/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst for H<sub>2</sub>-assisted SCR of NO<sub>x</sub> by ammonia

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## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 1 November 2011

Received in revised form

27 December 2011

Accepted 3 January 2012

Available online 9 January 2012

### Keywords:

Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

SO<sub>2</sub>

NO<sub>x</sub> SCR

Poisoning

Regeneration

## ABSTRACT

Sulfur poisoning and regeneration mechanisms for a 2% Ag/ $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst for the H<sub>2</sub>-assisted selective catalytic reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> by NH<sub>3</sub> are investigated. The catalyst has medium sulfur tolerance at low temperatures, however a good capability of regeneration at 670 °C under lean conditions when H<sub>2</sub> is present. These heating conditions can easily be established during soot filter regeneration. Furthermore, two types of active sites could be identified with different regeneration capabilities, namely finely dispersed Ag and larger Ag nanoparticles. The most active sites are associated with the finely dispersed Ag. These sites are irreversibly poisoned and cannot be regenerated under driving conditions. On the other hand the larger Ag nanoparticles are reversibly poisoned by direct SO<sub>x</sub> adsorption. The interpretation of the data is supported by DFT calculations.

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## 1. Introduction

Selective catalytic reduction (SCR) is the leading NO<sub>x</sub> control technique for diesel vehicles with ammonia used as a reductant. Commonly used catalysts are vanadia-based catalysts and Cu and Fe-containing zeolites. However, none of the systems demonstrate high thermal durability together with a good activity throughout the broad temperature region from 150 to 550 °C which is needed for vehicle applications [1]. Therefore, research of novel non-toxic, inexpensive and durable catalytic systems for NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR is still an important focus area.

Recently two research groups suggested to use Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which is a well-known catalyst for NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by hydrocarbons (HC-SCR), for SCR of NO<sub>x</sub> by ammonia or urea with co-feeding hydrogen, resulting in nearly 90% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at temperatures as low as 200 °C [2,3]. Still, one of the major obstacles for the application of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> for NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by ammonia is its rather poor sulfur tolerance [4]. A catalyst of 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> demonstrated a decrease in H<sub>2</sub>-assisted NO<sub>x</sub> conversion by urea from 50% to 30% after 20 h on stream in the presence of 50 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> at 250 °C. This is a rather good result

considering the very high GHSV = 380,000 h<sup>-1</sup> in the tests. However, the large amount of hydrogen (0.5%, 5:1 H<sub>2</sub>:NO) used in this study is probably unacceptable for application in diesel vehicles because such a large consumption of hydrogen leads to a high “fuel penalty” [5].

A significant amount of data on sulfur tolerance of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts exists for NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by hydrocarbons. Meunier and Ross [6] observed strong deactivation of a 1.2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst for propene-SCR by 100 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> in the feed. It is noteworthy that the authors were able to recover most of the catalyst activity by treatment in 10% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar at 650 °C or heating in the reaction mixture at 750 °C. Park and Boyer [7] compared the catalytic behavior of 2% and 8% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> and concluded that high Ag loadings may be preferential for making a sulfur tolerant catalyst. The authors demonstrated prominent activation of 8% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> by SO<sub>2</sub> in the feed and ascribed that to the formation of a very active silver sulfate phase.

When estimating the SO<sub>2</sub> tolerance of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts attention should be given also to the process temperature. Satokawa et al. [8] showed a clear dependence of the propane-SCR temperature on the deactivation degree with permanent catalyst deactivation at  $T < 500$  °C and furthermore the ability to partially regenerate the catalyst by heating to 600 °C, even without removing low amounts (1 ppm) of SO<sub>2</sub> from the feed. Further studies [8] of sulfation-regeneration mechanisms included obtaining SO<sub>2</sub> TPD profiles and

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attribution of peaks to different types of adsorbed SO<sub>2</sub>, bound to Ag and alumina. The catalyst regeneration temperature was lower than any of the SO<sub>2</sub> desorption peaks, observed in the study, which did not allow drawing a clear conclusion about the deactivation and regeneration mechanisms.

Breen et al. [9] also demonstrated a drastic dependence of the catalyst degree of poisoning on the temperature of NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by octane and toluene. The following was observed; at low temperatures (<235 °C) little deactivation, between 235 and 500 °C – severe deactivation and at  $T > 590$  °C – activation due to a suppression of unselective oxidation of hydrocarbons. The low temperature sulfur tolerance was ascribed to low catalyst activity in SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation to SO<sub>3</sub> with the latter considered to be the main poisoning agent for Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The authors have evaluated a few regeneration options of which heating to 650 °C in hydrogen-containing lean mixture showed promising results rather than regeneration under oxidizing conditions without H<sub>2</sub>. The fastest regeneration technique included heating the catalyst in a rich mixture containing CO and hydrogen.

The results of other research groups [10,11] agree with Breen's results in SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation to SO<sub>3</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> being the major step in the sulfur poisoning of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts. Partial regeneration of the catalyst was observed after heating to 600 °C in a hydrocarbon-containing feed.

In this work we have attempted to reveal the Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sulfation and regeneration mechanisms, which will allow us to develop an efficient regeneration strategy for the ammonia SCR catalyst in question. Special attention was given to the catalyst operation below 300 °C, since for applications in light-duty diesel vehicles low temperatures are of great importance [10]. The suggested mechanism was supported by DFT calculations. A regeneration strategy using the high temperatures developed during Diesel Particulate Filter (DPF) regeneration in diesel cars was evaluated.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Catalyst preparation

Parent  $\gamma$ -alumina (Puralox TH 100/150,  $S_{\text{BET}} = 150 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ ) was kindly provided by SASOL. 1–3 wt.% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were obtained by incipient wetness impregnation of parent  $\gamma$ -alumina by AgNO<sub>3</sub> (Sigma–Aldrich) dissolved in deionized water. After impregnation the catalyst was dried at room temperature overnight and calcined at 550 °C for 4 h in static air. The calcined catalyst was tableted, crushed and sieved to obtain a 0.18–0.35 mm fraction (mesh 80–mesh 45) used in the catalytic tests. A new batch of catalyst was sulfated and used to test every new regeneration recipe.

### 2.2. Determination of the specific surface area

The specific surface areas ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ) of the catalysts were measured by N<sub>2</sub>-adsorption with a Micromeritics Gemini instrument. Untreated catalysts were measured in powder form and for the catalysts after testing a 0.18–0.35 mm fraction of particles (as in catalytic tests) was used for the BET measurement.

### 2.3. Catalysis

Temperature-programmed activity tests were carried out in a fixed-bed flow reactor (quartz tube with 4 mm inner diameter) in a temperature programmed mode while the temperature was decreased from 400 °C to 150 °C with a rate of 2 °C/min. Prior to the temperature ramp the catalyst was heated to 470 °C for 30 min in the gas mixture used for the tests. The temperature was controlled using an Eurotherm 2408 temperature controller with a K-type thermocouple. 45 mg of catalyst was diluted with 100 mg of SiC (mesh 60) and placed on a quartz wool bed. The bed height

was ~11 mm and the GHSV, calculated using the volume of the pure catalyst was ~110,000 h<sup>-1</sup>. The gas composition normally contained 500 ppm NO, 520 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 1200 ppm of H<sub>2</sub>, 8.3% O<sub>2</sub>, and 7% water balanced with Ar. For sulfur poisoning tests 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> was admixed to the feed. Water was dosed by an ISCO 100DM syringe pump through a heated capillary. Reaction products were analyzed by a Thermo Fisher Nicolet 6700 FTIR analyzer, equipped with a 2 m gas cell. Gas capillaries were heated to ~130 °C and the FTIR gas cell to 165 °C to avoid condensation of water and formation of ammonium nitrate.

Conversions were calculated using the following equations:

$$X_{\text{NO}_x} = 1 - \frac{C_{\text{NO}_x}^{\text{outlet}}}{C_{\text{NO}_x}^{\text{inlet}}} \quad (1)$$

and

$$X_{\text{NH}_3} = 1 - \frac{C_{\text{NH}_3}^{\text{outlet}}}{C_{\text{NH}_3}^{\text{inlet}}} \quad (2)$$

where  $X_{\text{NO}_x}$  denotes the conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> and  $C_{\text{NO}_x}^{\text{inlet}}$  and  $C_{\text{NO}_x}^{\text{outlet}}$  are the NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations at the inlet and outlet of the reactor respectively, where:

$$C_{\text{NO}_x} = C_{\text{NO}} + C_{\text{NO}_2} + C_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} \quad (3)$$

and  $C_{\text{NH}_3}^{\text{inlet}}$  and  $C_{\text{NH}_3}^{\text{outlet}}$  are NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at the reactor inlet and outlet.

### 2.4. DFT calculations

The plane wave density functional theory (DFT) code DACAPO was used to calculate the adsorption energies and the gas phase energies of the adsorbates [12]. A plane wave cutoff of 340.15 eV and a density cutoff of 680 eV were used in the calculations. The core electrons were described by Vanderbilt ultrasoft pseudopotentials. The RBPE functional was used for describing the exchange correlation energy [13].

The adsorption energies of the SO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>4</sub> species were studied over the Ag (1 1 1) terrace and (2 1 1) step surfaces, on a  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> model step surface, and two single atom Ag sites.

For the Ag (1 1 1) and (2 1 1) surfaces, we used a  $4 \times 4 \times 1$  Monkhorst-Pack **k**-point sampling in the irreducible Brillouin zone. We employed a  $3 \times 3$  surface cell for the Ag (1 1 1) and  $3 \times 1$  surface cell for the Ag (2 1 1) surfaces. For the (1 1 1) surface we used a four-layer slab where the two top-most layers were allowed to relax, whereas for the (2 1 1) surfaces we used a slab model with nine layers and the topmost three layers are allowed to relax. In all the model calculations, neighboring slabs were separated by more than 10 Å of vacuum.

For the calculation of  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and the adsorption of different species on  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> we also used the DACAPO code with a plane wave cutoff of 340.15 eV and a density cutoff of 680 eV. A  $4 \times 4 \times 1$  Monkhorst-Pack **k**-point sampling in the irreducible Brillouin zone was used for  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface was modeled by a step on a non-spinel  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> structure which was derived from bulk  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> model in [14]. The cell parameters for the  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> model step surface are  $a = 8.0680$  Å and  $b = 10.0092$  Å and  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$ . For the  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surface the bottom two layers were fixed whereas the top-most three layers were allowed to relax. In all the model  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> surfaces, the neighboring slabs are separated by more than 10 Å of vacuum.

Single atom Ag sites were constructed by replacing one Al atom for Ag in the alumina step surface and by attaching one Ag atom to the  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> step (see [Supplementary material for the geometries](#)).

SO<sub>x</sub> and HSO<sub>x</sub> adsorption energies were calculated relative to gas phase energies of SO<sub>2</sub>(g), O<sub>2</sub>(g) and H<sub>2</sub>(g).

For calculation of desorption temperatures for SO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>3</sub> we used the following procedure. Starting from the chemical equation:



where \* is the free surface site and SO<sub>x</sub>\* is the adsorbed species. We can write down the ratio of occupied and free adsorption sites:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\theta_{\text{SO}_x}}{\theta^*} &= K_{\text{ads}} P_{\text{SO}_x} = \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_{\text{ads}}}{kT}\right) P_{\text{SO}_x} \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{-(\Delta G_{\text{ads}}^\ominus - kT \ln P_{\text{SO}_x})}{kT}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

We assume that at the desorption temperature the numbers of occupied and free adsorption sites will equal ( $\theta_{\text{SO}_x} = \theta^*$ ), which gives:

$$\Delta G_{\text{ads}}^\ominus - kT \ln P_{\text{SO}_x} = 0 \quad (7)$$

or

$$\Delta E_{\text{ads}} - \Delta \text{ZPE}_{\text{ads}} - T\Delta S_{\text{ads}} - kT \ln P_{\text{SO}_x} = 0 \quad (8)$$

We calculate the ZPE (zero point energy) and the entropy of the SO<sub>x</sub> in their adsorbed state and so it is possible to calculate the desorption temperature for a given partial pressure of SO<sub>x</sub>:

$$T = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{ads}}}{k \ln P_{\text{SO}_x} - \Delta S_{\text{gas}}} \quad (9)$$

The SO<sub>x</sub> entropy and ZPE found for the  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> model surface were also used for the single Ag atom sites on the  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Standard entropy values for SO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>3</sub> from [15] (neglecting entropy change with temperature) and a partial pressure of SO<sub>x</sub>  $4 \times 10^{-7}$  bar (0.4 ppm in Ref. [9]) and partial pressure of O<sub>2</sub> is 0.07 bar [9] were used in the calculations.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Catalyst choice: stability of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and options for the regeneration

##### 3.1.1. The catalyst choice

Temperature dependence of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> conversions for the fresh 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts is shown in Fig. 1a and b, respectively. 1% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibits SCR onset at 130 °C reaching 80% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at 200 °C and leveling NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at 90% at  $T > 300$  °C. This is in agreement with previous studies [2]. 2% and 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts demonstrate SCR onset shifted by 7 °C to lower temperatures compared 1%, but lower maximum conversion and generally lower SCR activity at higher temperatures, unlike results of Shimizu and Satsuma [3]. The NH<sub>3</sub> conversion follows the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at  $T < 270$ –300 °C. At higher temperature NH<sub>3</sub> becomes oxidized and the NH<sub>3</sub> conversion is higher than NO<sub>x</sub> conversion. Thus, NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation plays some role in the decrease of high temperature NO<sub>x</sub> conversion but this is not the main reason. The reason for observing conversion maxima for 2% and 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts at 200 °C with subsequent drop in NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> conversions could be direct oxidation of H<sub>2</sub> by oxygen taking over. As it was shown earlier no NO and NH<sub>3</sub> is converted over an Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst in the absence of H<sub>2</sub> [16]. Another possible reason is the lack of strong acid sites for NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption in the 2–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts which is demonstrated in [17].

Noteworthy, the tested catalysts demonstrate very high stability at temperature up to 700 °C which has also been shown in the number of papers on HC-SCR [3,9]. To further check the thermal stability of the 1% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst it was subjected to hydrothermal deactivation at 750 °C for 16 h. The activity of the obtained

catalyst is reported in Fig. 1a and b as gray dotted lines. The low-temperature conversion is only slightly shifted by 3 °C, whereas at  $T > 300$  °C one may observe a decrease in NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> conversions similar to that observed for catalysts with higher Ag loading. This may indicate sintering of Ag particles leading to the increased unselective oxidation of hydrogen. At the same time, the relatively small decrease in the catalyst specific surface area ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ) does not indicate any significant change in the alumina support (Table 1).

Contrary to the hydrothermal aging, sulfur poisoning of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> leads to significant catalyst deactivation. Preliminary experiments on the choice of sulfur poisoning temperature showed no catalyst deactivation with SO<sub>2</sub> in the feed at 500 °C and the most severe deactivation in the temperature range 200–300 °C in very good agreement with the earlier reported results for HC-SCR [8,9]. Therefore, preliminary SO<sub>2</sub> deactivation studies of 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were performed at 200–227 °C and all the following deactivation–regeneration studies of 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were done at 240–250 °C (Fig. 1c). For the comparison of regeneration methods the SO<sub>2</sub> poisoning was obtained by introducing 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> to the SCR feed for 4 h.

Catalytic performance of 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in NO<sub>x</sub> SCR after such sulfur treatment at 200–227 °C is shown in Fig. 1d. Lowering deactivation temperature from 250 °C to 200 °C leads to a very small shift of the low-temperature activity within 5 °C, therefore, the temperature difference is not the determining factor for the observed activity difference. 1% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was poisoned to the highest degree, whereas higher Ag loading led to better sulfur tolerance with 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> showing the highest NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at  $T < 300$  °C. It should be noted that after exposure to SO<sub>2</sub> (and even after regeneration of 1% and 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts at 670 °C) the NH<sub>3</sub> conversion profiles coincided with the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion profiles for all tested samples. That indicates quenching of NH<sub>3</sub> unselective oxidation over 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> by SO<sub>2</sub>. Due to the similarity of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> conversion curves for the sulfated catalysts only NO<sub>x</sub> conversions will be reported throughout the article.

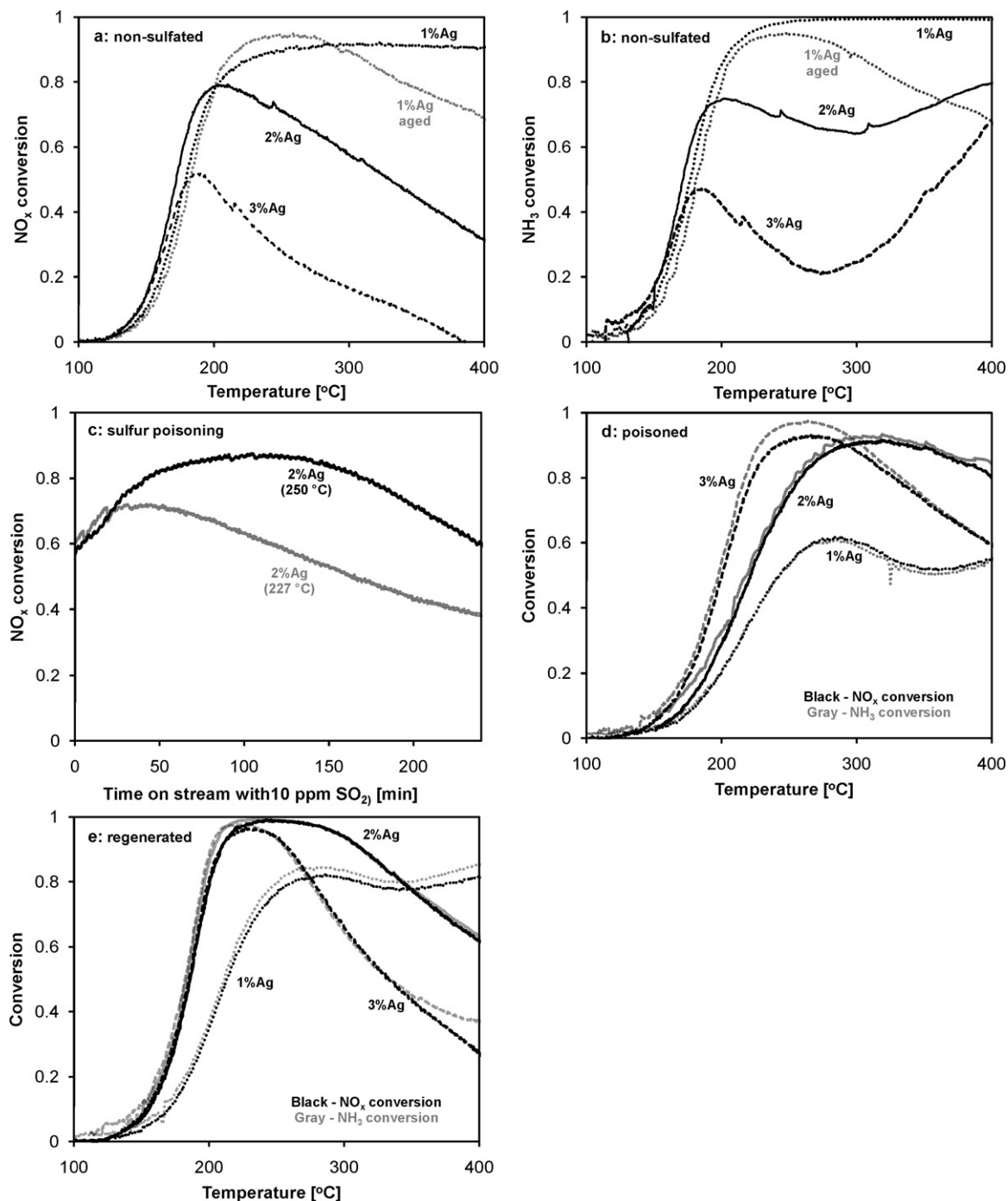
Sulfation of 2 and 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> leads not only to a shift of the maximum NO<sub>x</sub> conversion to higher temperatures but also to an increase to significantly higher values than demonstrated over the fresh catalysts. The shift of the maximum activity of 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> along with “activation” of the catalyst at 227 °C (near the conversion maximum of the fresh catalyst) and at 250 °C can be seen in Fig. 1c. Higher SO<sub>2</sub> exposure leads to a shift of the maximum NO<sub>x</sub> conversion to higher temperatures along with deterioration of the low-temperature activity. The activity gain induced by sulfation has been observed earlier and attributed to the redistribution of Ag species [4]. However, as we have observed the decrease of unselective NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation after SO<sub>2</sub> exposure, we suppose the SO<sub>x</sub> blocking of sites active in NH<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation to play a major role in the increased NO<sub>x</sub> conversion over 2 and 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts. At the same time SO<sub>2</sub> adsorption increases the alumina acidity which can also play the role for the SCR activity as discussed in a separate publication [17].

Several options for the catalyst regeneration under hydrocarbon (HC) SCR have been suggested in the literature. All of them include heating sulfated Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in different media – oxidizing [9], hydrogen (or hydrocarbon)-containing lean exhaust [6,8–10] or rich exhaust [6,9].

Heating sulfated 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to 670 °C for 10 min in the NO<sub>x</sub> SCR feed without hydrogen leads only to a small 10 °C shift of T50% to lower temperatures (not shown). Therefore, regeneration of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> for NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by NH<sub>3</sub> without co-feeding hydrogen is ineffective. Thus, regeneration at 670 °C in the reaction gas mixture was used to test the regeneration capability of 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts. Activity of the catalysts regenerated during 40 min is reported in Fig. 1e. All catalysts partially regained the low-temperature activity, however, the high-temperature activity of 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was

**Table 1**  
Specific surface areas of tested catalysts as measured by BET.

Catalyst	Treatment	$S_{\text{BET}}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /g)
1% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	–	142
1% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Hydrothermal aging (750 °C, 16 h)	126
2% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Catalytic test (w/o deactivation)	130
2% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Sulfation and 10 min regen. @ 670 °C	129
2% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Sulfation and 80 min regen. @ 670 °C	113
2% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	30 cycles of 1 h sulfation and 10 min regen. @ 670 °C, followed by heating to 950 °C	121
3% Ag/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	–	141



**Fig. 1.** NO<sub>x</sub> (a) and NH<sub>3</sub> (b) conversion profiles obtained over fresh 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (black) and hydrothermally aged 1% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (gray dotted) catalysts. (c) Evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> conversion at 227 and 250 °C over 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> in the feed. (d) NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> conversion profiles obtained over sulfur poisoned 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts. (e) NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> conversion profiles obtained over 1–3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts after 40 min regeneration at 670 °C. Reaction conditions: 500 ppm NO, 520 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 1200 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 8.3% O<sub>2</sub>, 7% H<sub>2</sub>O in Ar, GHSV = 110,000 h<sup>-1</sup>.



decreased compared to the sulfated catalyst. At the same point this catalyst demonstrated a higher conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$  compared to  $\text{NO}_x$  at  $T > 350^\circ\text{C}$ , indicating  $\text{NH}_3$  oxidation. 2%  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  showed the highest  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion throughout the whole temperature region and will, therefore, be used for the further study. For the simplicity in the text below and the following figures 2%  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  will be referred as  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ .

### 3.1.2. Regeneration options

To simulate regeneration in rich exhaust the catalyst was heated to  $670^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 min with oxygen removed from the feed. The activity following from this rich regeneration is presented in Fig. 2a as a solid line. The profile is significantly shifted to lower temperatures compared to the non-regenerated sample. Another feature is the maximum  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion (96%), which is now higher than that of both the fresh and the non-regenerated catalysts. Still, regeneration under rich conditions did not allow regaining the low-temperature activity completely.

However, obtaining rich exhaust from diesel engine leads to high fuel consumption and is, therefore, undesirable. Thus, we have preferred relatively fast catalyst regeneration under lean conditions with co-feeding hydrogen. The  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion profile for  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  regenerated 10 min at  $670^\circ\text{C}$  in the standard  $\text{NO}_x$  SCR feed (with hydrogen) is shown in Fig. 2a as a dashed line. The catalyst shows the same activity below  $200^\circ\text{C}$  as when regenerated under rich conditions and at higher temperatures even higher conversion (up to 100%). At the same time the surface area of the catalyst regenerated for 10 min is not deteriorated compared to the fresh catalyst (Table 1). This kind of regeneration is very easy to implement in diesel vehicles because it can coincide with regeneration of the DPF, which requires a similar heating strategy.

### 3.2. Influence of the regeneration time on the catalyst activity

Regeneration time is of high importance for automotive catalysts, as heating the catalyst requires a lot of energy, i.e. fuel to be spent. Influence of the regeneration time (for regeneration under lean conditions with co-feeding hydrogen) on the activity of the regenerated catalyst is shown in Fig. 2b. The value on the Y-axis is the shift of temperature for 50%  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion over the regenerated catalyst relative to the fresh catalyst:

$$T_{50\% \text{ shift}} = T_{50\% \text{ regenerated}} - T_{50\% \text{ fresh}} \quad (10)$$

Zero at the timescale stands for non-regenerated catalyst. Heating to  $670^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 min leads to the shift of  $T_{50\%}$  by  $24^\circ\text{C}$  towards lower temperatures, which is already very good. Heating for 10 min allows us to get  $6^\circ\text{C}$  lower  $T_{50\%}$ , but further treatment at high temperatures does not lead to significant further activation of the catalyst. The best  $T_{50\%}$ , we could get by regenerating  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , is  $15^\circ\text{C}$  higher than  $T_{50\%}$  of the fresh  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . That result is obtained after 40 min of regeneration. Higher regeneration time does not yield better activity but causes loss of the catalyst surface area (Table 1) and is, therefore, undesirable. It is worth noting that we were not able to match the low-temperature activity of the fresh catalyst after regeneration.

### 3.3. Developing a deactivation–regeneration strategy to mimic automotive catalyst operating conditions

Typical lifecycle of an automotive light-duty  $\text{Ag}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$   $\text{NO}_x$  SCR catalyst comprises normal driving, during which the catalyst operates at low temperatures  $150\text{--}350^\circ\text{C}$  [10] and is poisoned by sulfur, and regeneration which optimally coincides with regeneration of the DPF. To be more precise, useful vehicle running time according to the modern Euro 5 and Euro 6 standards is 160,000 km [18], and typical intervals between DPF regenerations are 300–900 km

(with the modern Volvo D5 light-duty diesel engine as an example) [19], which gives a minimum of 160 catalyst regeneration cycles. Using average fuel consumption of this engine during urban driving (6.7 l/100 km with a manual gearbox), an average diesel fuel density approx. 850 g/l [20], and a maximum allowed sulfur content of 10 ppm in the diesel fuel [21], the total sulfur passed through the catalyst will amount to 91 g or 2.85 mol. Using available data on the volume of monolith catalyst for the mentioned engine (91) and the monolith density  $2.5 \text{ g/in}^3$  [10], the weight of the washcoat for an automotive catalyst (15% of the total) and the relative weight of the powder catalyst in the washcoat (80%) [22], we get a total of 0.47 g (14.7 mmol) sulfur per gram of powder catalyst during the vehicle lifetime. Therefore, the amount of sulfur per one deactivation cycle will be  $83 \mu\text{mol/g}$  of catalyst, assuming adsorption of all sulfur. In reality, however, not all sulfur will be adsorbed partly due to very high or low temperatures [9].

In our tests we have chosen the scheme involving catalyst poisoning with 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$  at intermediate temperature of  $240^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 h which gives us a sulfur exposure before regeneration of  $65 \mu\text{mol/g}$  of catalyst, which is close to the theoretical maximum value calculated above. Thus, we will use this protocol as “worst case” scenario.

Fig. 3a and b shows two different ways of testing sulfur tolerance with the same total sulfur exposure (4 h with 10 ppm  $\text{SO}_2$ , corresponds to  $260 \mu\text{mol/g}$  catalyst) and the same regeneration time, but split by four relatively small regeneration segments in the second case.

The comparison of the catalyst activity after these two tests is given in Fig. 3c. Evidently, the low-temperature activities of the two poisoned catalysts are identical. Different SCR activity at  $T > 200^\circ\text{C}$  does not allow us to state that the regenerated catalyst activity observed in Fig. 3c represents “steady state” automotive catalyst activity in both cases. Further testing is needed to reveal “steady state” catalyst activity during sulfation–regeneration cycles.

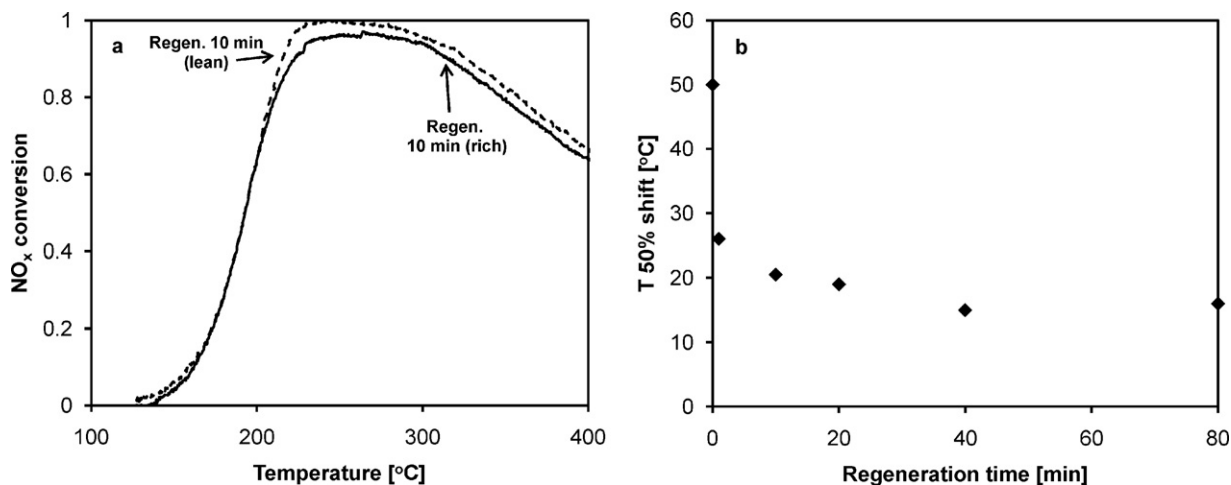
### 3.4. Cycling deactivation–regeneration

In order to clarify if the catalyst will be further deactivated after several 1 h.  $\text{SO}_2$  poisoning – 10 min regeneration cycles we have carried out 30 deactivation (at  $240^\circ\text{C}$ ) – regeneration (at  $670^\circ\text{C}$ ) cycles. Evolution of the  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  conversions during the first 9 cycles of the experiment is shown in Fig. 4.

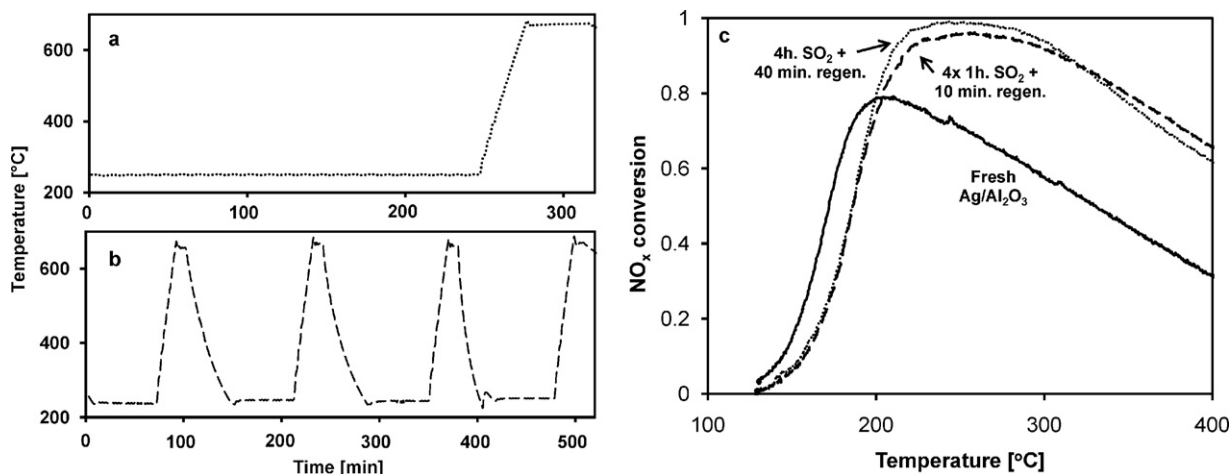
During the sulfation of the fresh catalyst (first 60 min)  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion steadily increases. During heating the catalyst to  $670^\circ\text{C}$  the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion drops to slightly negative values. According to Eq. (1) in Section 2.3 this is due to a higher  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration at the reactor outlet than at the inlet. The latter is caused by oxidation of part of ammonia to  $\text{NO}_x$  at the regeneration temperature which can be seen by the higher conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$  compared to  $\text{NO}_x$  at  $T > 500^\circ\text{C}$ . To prevent ammonia oxidation in the real life application it is possible to switch off ammonia supply during regeneration without compromising regeneration efficiency.

The  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion following regeneration is maximal (97%) after the first regeneration and decreases only a little (to 95%) with further regeneration cycles. However, sulfur poisoning of the regenerated sample leads to a decrease in the  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion at the end of each of the first deactivation cycles. This decrease in  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion could indicate that during each of these first regenerations the  $\text{SO}_x$  adsorbed during the preceding deactivation cycle is not completely removed from the catalyst surface. After seven sulfation–regeneration cycles  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion is stabilized, so each new testing cycle yields the same profile as the previous. Thus, further sulfation and regeneration do not change the catalyst performance.

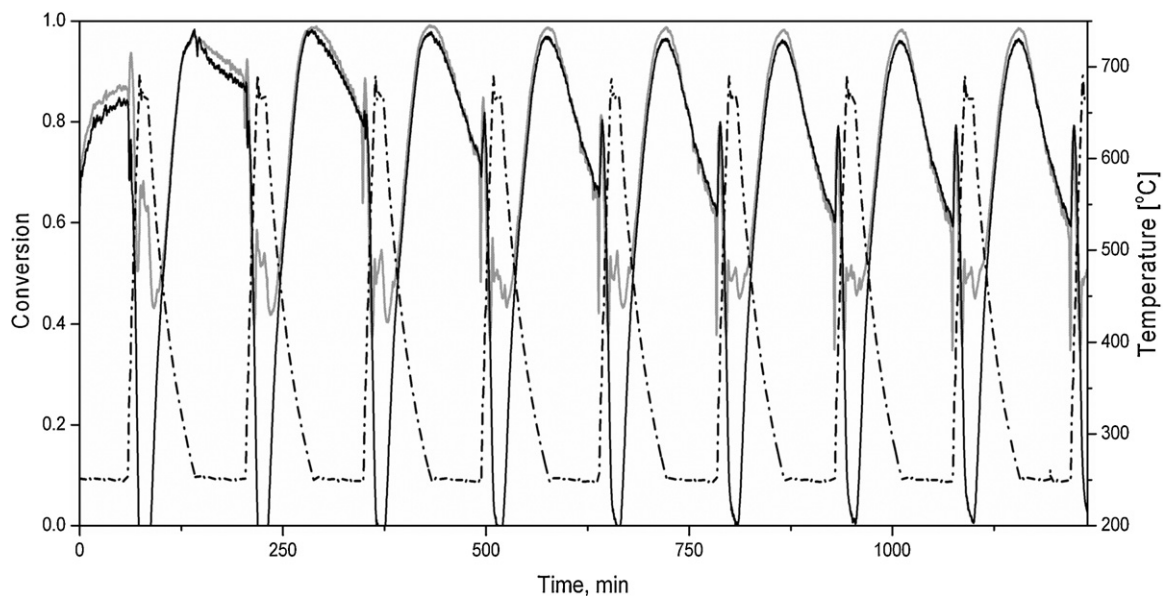
Integration of the  $\text{SO}_2$  signal measured by FTIR during 10th–20th cycles (they are all equal) gives the amount of  $\text{SO}_2$  equal to the



**Fig. 2.** (a) NO<sub>x</sub> conversion profiles obtained over 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after 10 min regeneration at 670 °C (dashed) and after 1 min regeneration at 670 °C in rich mixture (solid). Reaction conditions: 500 ppm NO, 520 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 1200 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 8.3% O<sub>2</sub>, 7% H<sub>2</sub>O in Ar, GHSV = 110,000 h<sup>-1</sup>. (b) Dependence of shift of temperature of 50% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion on the regeneration time. The 0 corresponds to no regeneration.



**Fig. 3.** (a) Temperature profile of 4 h sulfation – 40 min regeneration experiment. (b) Temperature profile of 4 × 1 h sulfation – 10 min regeneration experiment. (c) NO<sub>x</sub> conversion profiles obtained over fresh 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (solid line), 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after 4 h with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> at 240 °C and 40 min regeneration at 670 °C (dotted line), after 4 cycles 1 h with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> at 240 °C and 10 min regeneration (dashed line).



**Fig. 4.** Evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> conversion with time for the first 9 cycles of the long-term stability test of 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Reaction conditions: 500 ppm NO, 1200 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 8.3% O<sub>2</sub>, 7% H<sub>2</sub>O in Ar, GHSV = 110,000 h<sup>-1</sup>. Sulfation with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> for 1 h at 240 °C, regeneration for 10 min at 670 °C.

amount of SO<sub>2</sub> passed through the catalyst during these cycles. Therefore, using FTIR data we can estimate the amount of SO<sub>2</sub>, which was accumulated in the catalyst and not desorbed during the first regenerations to be 0.11 mmol/g catalyst.

Our data (not shown) suggests that the SO<sub>2</sub> poisoning effect is cumulative in the range of SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations 0.5–10 ppm, i.e. the catalyst deactivation degree depends only on total SO<sub>2</sub> exposure. Therefore, with the same SO<sub>x</sub> exposure between DPF regenerations as in this study real catalyst performance will be high enough even in the end of a sulfation cycle before the next regeneration.

### 3.5. Mechanism of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sulfation and regeneration

The results obtained in the previous Section 3.4 set the ground for a few conclusions regarding the sulfation and regeneration mechanisms for Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts of hydrogen-assisted NO<sub>x</sub> SCR by NH<sub>3</sub>.

First of all, some amount of SO<sub>x</sub> is not desorbed after regeneration. This amount was estimated in the previous section and is reproducible. At the same time we cannot regenerate the full low-temperature activity of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, no matter if lean hydrogen-containing or rich mixtures were used for the regeneration. The SCR reaction onset for the sulfated and regenerated catalyst is always shifted to higher temperatures. Therefore, we suppose that a certain type of active sites exists (name it “Type I”), which stand for Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> activity at low temperatures (<200 °C) that are irreversibly poisoned by SO<sub>2</sub> and cannot be regenerated using standard techniques. Taking into account the very low sulfur tolerance of low-loaded Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [6,7], we can attribute Type I active sites to highly dispersed silver e.g. Ag<sup>δ+</sup> atoms or Ag<sup>+</sup> ions [23,24] (see Fig. 5).

SO<sub>x</sub> adsorption on the alumina surface (where dispersed silver is localized) blocks these Type I active sites. SO<sub>x</sub> can be adsorbed on single-atom Ag sites on the alumina as well as on the neighboring Al atoms. It is impossible to desorb SO<sub>x</sub> from the alumina surface by heating the catalyst to 670 °C [25] and, therefore, Type I active sites could not be regenerated.

Another evidence of irreversibly poisoned active sites is the formation of excess of nitrogen dioxide over the fresh catalyst (Fig. 6b, solid line), a catalytic function which is irreversibly poisoned by SO<sub>2</sub> and cannot be regenerated (Fig. 6b, dotted line). Therefore, we also attribute the increased NO oxidation capacity to Type I active sites.

However, the possibility of regeneration of the most of the SCR activity of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> hints on the existence of “Type II” active sites. As they are more abundant in more SO<sub>2</sub> tolerant high-loaded Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [7] we attribute them to the surface of Ag nanoparticles. It has been shown that it is possible to desorb SO<sub>2</sub> from the Ag surface at temperatures near 600 °C [25]. Thus, we assume that sulfation and regeneration of these Type II active sites determines the SCR activity of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with sulfur-containing fuel in diesel vehicles. According to the SCR mechanism suggested in [16] these Type II species are also capable of oxidizing NO to NO<sub>2</sub> which further reacts with NH<sub>3</sub> over alumina. However, Type II sites are less active which leads to the deficit of NO<sub>2</sub> and prevents observing it in the gas phase when NH<sub>3</sub> is present.

Our assumption about the existence and function of Type I active sites can be verified by the following. As follows from the SO<sub>2</sub> TPD profiles in Refs. [11,25], it is possible to desorb SO<sub>x</sub> from alumina surface at ca. 1000 °C. Of course, the alumina will undergo partial restructuring at this temperature [26] accompanied by the formation of the α-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> phase, which will partially ruin the catalyst. However, this may help to test the principle.

The results of heating of sulfated Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to 950 °C in the SCR gas mixture with further immediate cooling are shown in Fig. 6a and b as dashed lines. By removing SO<sub>x</sub> from the alumina surface (observed by FTIR) we were able to regain SCR onset at the same

temperature as for the fresh Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 6a). At the same time we were able to regenerate excessive NO<sub>2</sub> production (Fig. 6b) which was impossible to get by any kind of regeneration at lower temperature. Still, the maximum activity of the catalyst was lower than that of the fresh catalyst resembling the activity of 3% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 1a). The specific surface area of the catalyst regenerated at 950 °C did not change significantly compared to the fresh sample (Table 1), therefore, it is rather sintering of Ag particles which caused a drop in the maximum activity. Thus, we consider possibility of regenerating low temperature activity as an evidence for the existence of several types of active sites in Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as was previously stated for HC-SCR Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts [27].

The fact that SO<sub>x</sub> irreversibly adsorbed on the alumina surface does not hinder that the SCR reaction can be explained if we assume that Ag species participate in the oxidation of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> and the alumina facilitates further reaction of NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> according to the “Fast SCR” mechanism [28]. Since “Fast SCR” occurs over a number of acidic surfaces, sulfated alumina should catalyze SCR as well if SO<sub>x</sub>-free Ag surface is left to oxidize NO.

### 3.6. Evaluation of the proposed sulfation and regeneration mechanism of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> by DFT

Adsorption energies of SO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>4</sub> for the most energetically favorable adsorption geometries for different adsorption sites are summarized in Table 2 and the corresponding geometries for the γ-alumina model step surface are shown in Fig. 7. It should be noted that SO<sub>x</sub> can be adsorbed on the γ-alumina in different configurations with similar energies and only the lowest energies (strongest adsorption) are shown. The DFT calculation shows that the SO<sub>x</sub> adsorbs strongly on the step sites which is expected from the low coordination of these sites and the steric freedom available at the step sites [29–31]. At the same time the surface step is representative of small 1–3 nm nanoparticles containing mostly under-coordinated surface atoms [32].

Two trends can be identified from these values. First global trend is that all types of SO<sub>x</sub> bind significantly stronger to the alumina surface than the metal surface. The adsorption sites also include single Ag sites at the alumina surface with Ag atom built in the surface substituting Al is binding SO<sub>x</sub> most strongly (see [Supplementary material for the exact site geometry](#)). This can be explained by a thermodynamically unfavorable defect structure of this site. Secondly, the oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>3</sub> is thermodynamically favorable, with subsequent poisoning of the catalyst surface by the resulting SO<sub>3</sub>. This has been suggested in Ref. [9] and probably involves reaction with NO<sub>2</sub> [11]. SO<sub>2</sub> alone cannot be adsorbed on the studied metallic Ag surfaces under reaction conditions and SO<sub>x</sub> can, thus, only poison the alumina support or single Ag sites on this surface.

The calculated desorption temperatures (Table 2) are low but the order, at which regeneration of Type II (Ag surface) and Type I (highly dispersed Ag on the alumina) occurs is in agreement with the mechanism of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> poisoning and regeneration suggested in Section 3.5. The difference between calculated and experimental desorption temperatures [11,25] might indicate the formation of bulk silver sulfate [7,33,34].

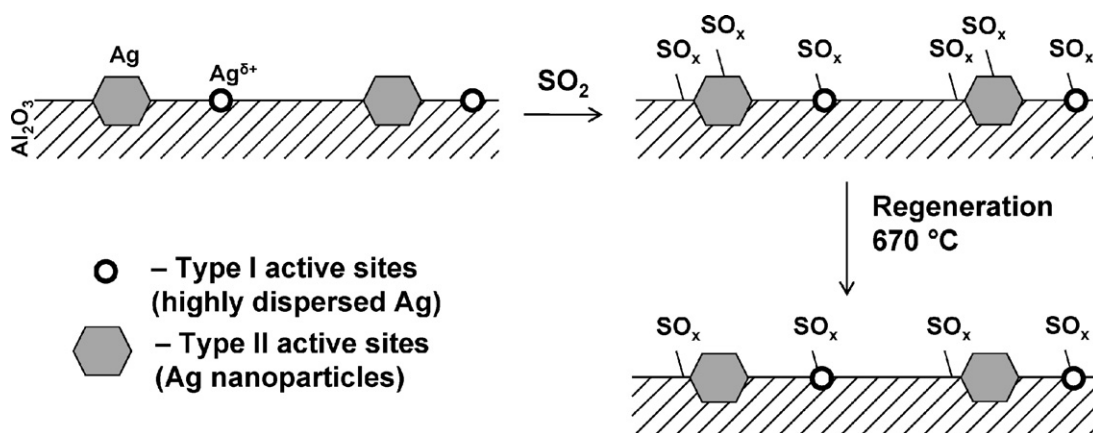
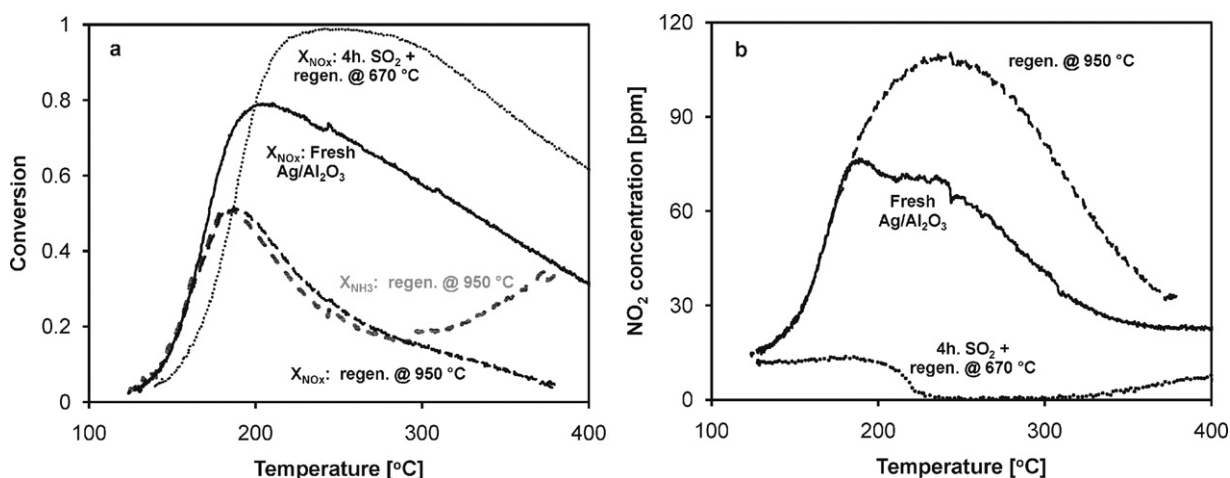
At the same time addition of hydrogen significantly enhances catalyst regeneration i.e. removal of SO<sub>x</sub> which could be due to the formation of the correspondent HSO<sub>x</sub> species with their subsequent desorption. Table 3 shows the energies of the HSO<sub>x</sub> species in the gas phase and adsorbed on the most energetically favorable sites. According to the given numbers, the formation of HSO<sub>x</sub> is highly favorable on Ag (2.11). As the adsorption energies of the HSO<sub>x</sub> species with respect to the gas phase species H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> (g) and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (g) are very small they are easily desorbed. The formation of HSO<sub>x</sub> is not favorable on the model γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> step surface and at the site with Ag built into the γ-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> model step surface. Thus,

**Table 2**Adsorption energies and desorption temperatures of SO<sub>x</sub> for the most energetically favorable adsorption geometries in case of different adsorption sites.

	Type II (metallic Ag)				Type I (dispersed Ag)					
	Ag (1 1 1)		Ag (2 1 1)		$\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>		Ag built in the $\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> surface		Ag on the step of $\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	
	<i>E</i> <sub>ads</sub> (eV)	<i>T</i> <sub>des</sub> (K)	<i>E</i> <sub>ads</sub> (eV)	<i>T</i> <sub>des</sub> (K)	<i>E</i> <sub>ads</sub> (eV)	<i>T</i> <sub>des</sub> (K)	<i>E</i> <sub>ads</sub> (eV)	<i>T</i> <sub>des</sub> (K)	<i>E</i> <sub>ads</sub> (eV)	<i>T</i> <sub>des</sub> (K)
SO <sub>2</sub>	Not adsorbed	–	–0.26	81	–1.43	558	–2.06	791	–1.29	506
SO <sub>3</sub>	–1.61	390	–1.82	458	–2.66	630	–3.34	781	–2.64	625
SO <sub>4</sub>	–2.65	454	–2.97	597	–1.15	222	–1.77	331	–3.14	572

**Table 3**Energies of HSO<sub>x</sub> species in the gas phase and adsorbed on the most energetically favorable adsorption sites.

Energy <sup>a</sup> (eV)	HSO <sub>2</sub>	HSO <sub>3</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>	HSO <sub>4</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>
Gas phase	0.21	–0.75	–2.15	–1.48	–3.39
Adsorbed on $\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Dissociates	–2.84	–2.18	–3.16	Dissociates
Adsorbed on Ag built in the $\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Dissociates	–4.10	–3.38	–3.61	Dissociates
Adsorbed on Ag (2 1 1)	0.02	–2.56	–2.22	–3.94	–3.57

<sup>a</sup> Energy of the HSO<sub>x</sub> species is given with respect to SO<sub>2</sub> (g), O<sub>2</sub> (g) and H<sub>2</sub> (g).**Fig. 5.** The scheme of Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> sulfation and regeneration.**Fig. 6.** (a) NO<sub>x</sub> conversion profiles obtained over fresh 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (solid line), 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after 4 h with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> at 240 °C, followed by 40 min regeneration at 670 °C (dotted line) and after additional regeneration at 950 °C (dashed line). (b) Temperature dependence of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration at the reactor outlet obtained over fresh 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (solid line), 2% Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> after 4 h with 10 ppm SO<sub>2</sub> at 240 °C, followed by 40 min regeneration at 670 °C (dotted line) and after additional regeneration at 950 °C (dashed line). Reaction conditions: 500 ppm NO, 520 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 1200 ppm H<sub>2</sub>, 8.3% O<sub>2</sub>, 7% H<sub>2</sub>O in Ar, GHSV = 110,000 h<sup>–1</sup>.



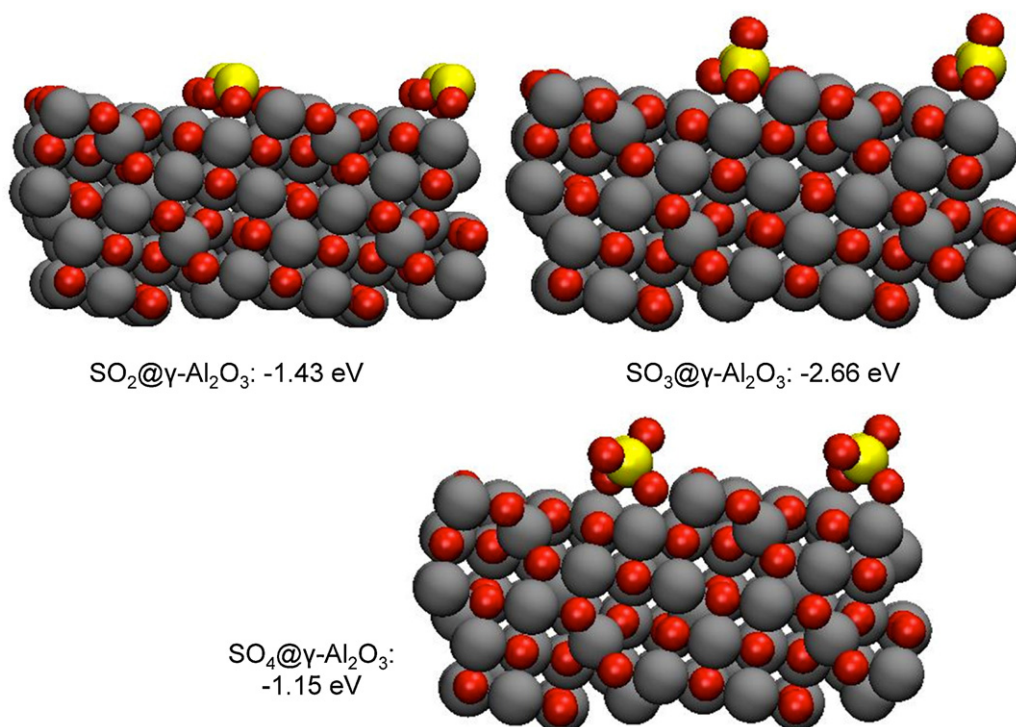


Fig. 7. The most energetically favorable adsorption geometries for adsorption of  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{SO}_3$ , and  $\text{SO}_4$  on the  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  model surface (with corresponding adsorption energies).

presence of  $\text{H}_2$  will promote the desorption of  $\text{SO}_x$  species from the Ag (2 1 1) surface via formation of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3$  (g) and  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  (g) but not for  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  surface and the single Ag sites on the  $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  surface.

#### 4. Conclusions

Sulfur tolerance and regeneration options of 2% Ag/ $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$  catalyst for  $\text{H}_2$ -assisted  $\text{NO}_x$  SCR by  $\text{NH}_3$  have been tested. The catalyst has medium sulfur tolerance at low temperatures, however a good capability of regeneration. This regeneration should include heating to 650–700 °C for 10–20 min, provided the SCR gas feed is unchanged (ammonia may be removed) and hydrogen is co-fed. Regeneration of Ag/ $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  without oxygen (rich mixture) leads to essentially the same effect, but requires less time.

Heating to 650–700 °C does not allow full regeneration of low-temperature activity and does not allow recovery of  $\text{NO}_2$  formation over Ag/ $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  in the course of SCR.

During the long-term tests with cycling poisoning–regeneration periods the catalyst activity is regenerated during each regeneration cycle, but at least for the first 6–7 cycles sulfur species are accumulated on the catalyst. Presumably,  $\text{SO}_x$  is removed from Ag, but not from the alumina surface during standard regeneration, which allows us to make a conclusion on the existence of different active sites in Ag/ $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , namely finely dispersed Ag ions and Ag nanoparticles.

#### Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the Danish Council for Strategic Research through grant 09-067233.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2012.01.002.

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